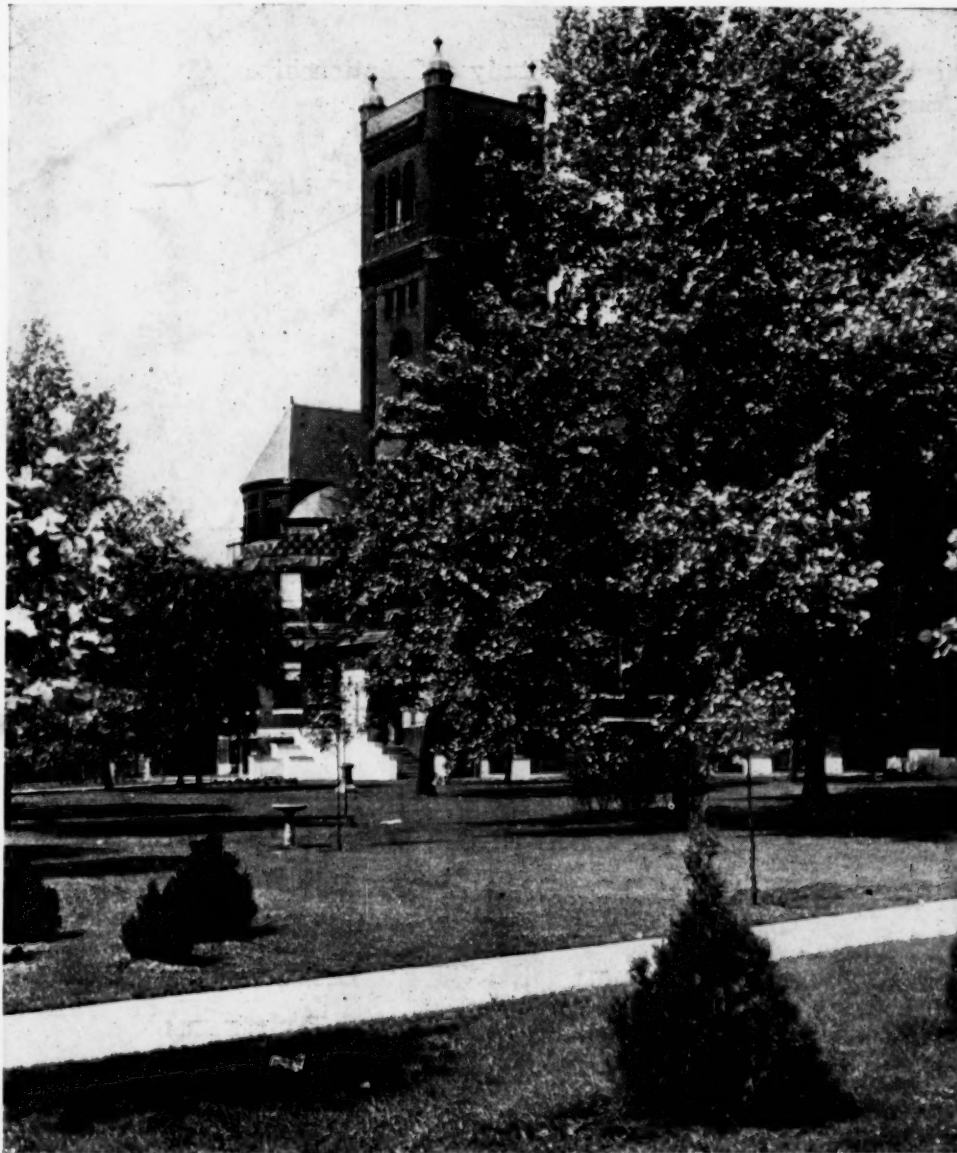


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THE JULY COVER

The July issue of the Journal is devoted mainly to abstracts of unpublished Masters' theses and the index for the current volume. Since this is the commencement issue, the lead article is an address delivered during commencement week. The picture on the front cover shows a view of the chimies tower of the Administration Building favored by both students and alumni.

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A New Age of Reason

Jack Mankin

Each year the July issue carries as its number one article an address delivered by one of the class-day speakers. Mr. Mankin spoke at the Senior-Alumni Convocation, June 3, 1945.

Although quite active in campus activities and social and honorary organizations, Mr. Mankin enjoyed journalism more than anything else. He is enlisted in the Navy Reserve V-7 Program and will enter Midshipman School in August, at which time he will have completed the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Science in Liberal Arts.

The words "a new age of reason" would indicate that sometime in the past there was an old age of reason. Our country was formed in an age of reason—the time just before, during, and after our war for freedom from England. That freedom included personal freedom of individuals, freedom to organize new faiths and worship as individuals pleased, a free government, and policies looking to some extent toward economic freedom.

All freedoms are a result of reasoning. Persecutions come from a failure to reason. Now we are fighting for the freedom of a world, not just a country, and if we are to achieve that freedom, we must reason about people, about religion, about government, and—very important—about basic economic beliefs.

First, let us consider reasoning about people. Society has a myth about people. It seems to give a natural advantage to certain individuals through circumstances with which those individuals had nothing to do. For example, a man seems to have an inborn advantage over a woman. In

this country the white race has advantage over all other races. Then, society has prejudices regarding age. It says that young people lack experience and that old people are fogies. That would leave an age group in between with a definite social advantage. Financial status enters into the estimation of a person. He is best regarded who is well-off but not too rich. However, better to be too rich than too poor. Probably professional people—doctors, lawyers, engineers, and architects are the best regarded. Society also has educational prejudices. It wants a person to be educated but not too well educated. Jokes about college professors are evidence. For myself, if I had to choose one group of people to make my decisions for me, I should choose college professors for their general higher education.

It becomes evident that we must reason on each of these counts. It doesn't matter so much what a person's sex is, how old he is, what color he is, how much money he has, or even how much education he has, but it does matter what he is and what he does. It is the old story of judging first on merit, putting prejudices behind. These are some ways that we can reason about people.

Next, we need to reason on religion. This is very important for youth. We are that youth and we are asking questions. Questions demand answers, and we want reasonable answers. We don't want our questions about religion answered by dogmatic statements or creeds of blind acceptance. We want to know why a thing is so in religion just the same as we want to know why it is so in science.

For me, the important thing about Christian religion is the life of Jesus. I consider the greatest Christian to be the person who comes closest to duplicating the life and teachings of Jesus.

That means that right living is the important thing. One wonders about where he came from and where he is going, but that doesn't matter half so much as deciding what one is going to do while he is here. Some of the outstanding church-goers who contribute liberally of their time and money each Sunday forget about right living the other six days of the week. Thomas Paine said in 1796, "Infidelity does not consist of believing or disbelieving, but of professing to believe what you do not believe." That is just as good today as it was in 1796, and the best way to tell what one believes is to judge by the way he lives.

Youth needs a supreme faith, something up above everything else. Youth wants that supreme faith to be God, but if religion is to hide the true God under dogmatic statements and blind creeds, we don't want it. We have heard it said that man is not to reason about God and the Bible, but anything which can not stand the test of reason can not exist forever. That is why we must have a reasonable faith and the church must be a house of reason.

We must reason about government. Is our government the best government in the world? Perhaps all of us would immediately say that we think it is, but each should ask himself why it is the best government in the world. If we establish the fact that we have the best government in the world, is our reasoning to end there? Can our government be improved? Could we take lessons from other governments, for example, England or Russia?

That brings up the matter of name calling. We have an unfortunate habit of tabbing anything undesirable by a name like Socialism, Communism, or we say a person is a Red without knowing for sure what these terms mean or what that person stands for. If we can adopt beneficial beliefs from the so-called Socialists or Communists or Reds, we should adopt them immediately and forget about whether they are called one name or another.

(Continued on page 125)

Science and Religion: A Partnership

John Clarence Petrie

Mr. Petrie, a graduate of Fordham University and General Theological Seminary, is minister of the First Unitarian Church of Houston, Texas. He holds a license as teacher of history and economics in New York public schools, where for a number of years he taught in high school. The occasion on which Doctors Morgan and Otto expressed the points of view with which Reverend Petrie disagrees was *The Conference on the Scientific Spirit and Democratic Faith*, held a few weeks ago. The three scholars, all being members of the same religious denomination, have better justification than most disputants for disagreeing with one another.

The points of view expressed by Mr. Petrie represent some new light on the familiar subject of science and religion. The *Journal* welcomes the opportunity to publish these points of view.

PART I

Former President Arthur E. Morgan of Antioch College said recently that science had made the greatest contribution to human life in the last one thousand years. He said it before a group, incidentally, which was made up of men who consider themselves religious; and certainly they were among the best products of our modern system of education. The statement passed unchallenged, as would likely be the case if it were made almost anywhere today among college teachers and scientists. It gives one cause to consider just what scale of values we have. In the last one thousand years European civilization took its rise; the great thirteenth century produced its cathedrals and the mighty synthesis of human knowledge of Thomas Aquinas; the Renaissance brought Dante and Petrarch and Michelangelo; the sixteenth century

brought Luther; Elizabethan England brought Shakespeare and the Book of Common Prayer; the reign of James brought the King James Bible; the eighteenth century brought Bach and Goethe and Schiller; the nineteenth century brought Shelley and Wordsworth and Wagner. Religion, literature, painting, music, drama—what strides have been made in those fields in a thousand years! Yet a college president can say the contributions of science are the greatest of all. Could anything better witness to the American worship of materialism and gadgets? Granted that science has made necessary the most revolutionary changes in our way of living, and that it has lengthened our lives and increased our leisure for enjoying it, it still remains true that its contributions standing by themselves can not be said to outweigh mankind's progress in other directions. The Nazis took advantage of science to get the jump on a sleeping world. They found no difficulty in persuading allegedly impartial scientists to endorse as scientific their theories of racism. No sooner had the Hitlerites taken control than the faculties of the universities placed their great scientific learning at the Führer's feet. It is the scientists who make possible the blitzkrieg, the dive bomber, the bombing and fighter planes, the mines, and submarines. Science as such is a two-edged sword. Science can murder as well as heal; destroy as well as build. The progress of science is not necessarily progress at all; it may actually mean bigger and better means for achieving battle, murder, and sudden death.

If the gains of science are also to be

gains for mankind, it is clear that mankind should learn how to use science constructively. Nor will it suffice to say that man must have a high order of intelligence, since intelligence of itself is no guarantee. To intelligence must be joined good will, and good will means the development in man of character, self-control, and unselfishness. Can we deny that the gadgets of science today are used to a great extent to enable us to indulge our appetites with greater freedom? Does not the whole problem, then, of whether or not science is a blessing or a curse, fall back upon those forces in the world which have made for the development of character? Religion—and that, in our western world, has meant the church—far from being the outmoded instrument some would think, is actually more needed than ever. In pre-scientific days, a bad man was strictly limited in the evil he could do; today, it sometimes looks as though his powers for harm were infinite. Hitler comes in mind once more. One man with a few followers seized Germany, took over her modern machinery, enlisted her scientific men; and behold today a global war as a result.

Strange contradiction—at the very moment when religion and ethics are most necessary, they are most neglected. How many college graduates have been exposed to courses in religion and philosophy of as high an order as their courses in biology and chemistry? Do we act as though we thought religion were a necessity, when Ph.D.'s have not progressed in it beyond what they learned at mother's knee? Graduate science too often is opposed—and the word "opposed" is used here intentionally—to nursery theology. How many college graduates could state the classical arguments for the existence of God and the immortality of the human soul? How many have the slightest notion of what great Biblical scholars think of the creation stories in Genesis? How many college students imagine that educated clergymen believe the book of Jonah was actually intended as history?

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As a matter of fact, religion is in itself a mighty science calling for an application and disinterested study on the part of its experts equal to that demanded of the heroes of the scientific laboratories. Whole libraries of books have been written on the Bible alone. Science itself has been called in to aid with the task of arriving at correct readings. Universities sponsor parties of archaeologists who have spent years of their lives in the search for ancient remains that would throw light on the events which brought Judaism and Christianity into the world and made them the foundation of western culture. Theology is a science by itself—indeed is proclaimed often as the queen of sciences, since it is from theology that all earthly studies derive their true value and orientation. Religious philosophy is another science well worth the mettle of any ambitious student—the discovery by unaided human reason of the basic truths underlying all religion, which alone can give meaning and dignity to life.

Of so intimate a character is religion that it can not be treated properly as an elective in the curriculum of life. It is not the frosting on the cake. "Religion," wrote Browning, "is all or nothing: stuff o' the very stuff." History, the sciences, literature—these are not to be studied as though they were unrelated to theology. Medicine is not an autonomous subject, nor law, nor pedagogy. Physicians sometimes act in disobedience to the dictates of religion; that is, they treat patients from a purely "scientific" viewpoint. They recommend courses of conduct which do violence to the moral laws written into the very structure of things. A girl wrote home from an army camp where she is stationed in service that until recently she had been a bit inhibited—but was so no longer—and that she would probably return home slightly soiled around the edges. The little word "inhibited" tells the tale. Moral principles are not inhibitions—they are moral principles; and it is "devil's work" to destroy virtue by giving

moral principles this pseudo-scientific name. "The seducer always finds new ways to accomplish his deadly work." If the phrases of holy science can be quoted to justify moral laxity, it serves in our time as did the quoting of the scripture in ancient times by his "Satanic Majesty." In the Netherlands, the one great united protest against the wholesale sterilization of all Jews married to "Aryans" has come from the Protestant and Catholic churches. Whatever science may have to say on the subject—and we must remember that as such science has no conscience—this action of the Nazis violates the natural rights of a human being, rights conferred on him by virtue of his creation by the one God who is Father of the whole human race. Adam Smith worked out a "science" of economics with which men with their moral principles were not supposed to meddle. But religion can not tolerate reducing human beings, the children of God, to the status of objects of barter. The Christian Middle Ages recognized not the market price of a man's labor but the principle of just wage. The word "just" is not scientific; it is religious, ethical.

The worst error perpetrated at the session at which Dr. Morgan spoke came from Dr. Max C. Otto of the University of Wisconsin. He maintained that the triumph of supernatural religion would doom democracy. Yet the Declaration of Independence, certainly a charter of democracy, bases its claim for the equality of all men directly upon our creation by God. Creation is not a scientific term—it was not born of science but of religious faith. As we look at men, they are not equal. In the face of the obvious inequalities, our forefathers made the bold experiment of building a new nation based on the dogma of equality. Hitler has aimed to set up in Germany a new nation based on science alone. The mentally ill, the "unfit," the "lower" races, are all to be dealt with as suits the needs of the "superior" race—and in support of such a policy is trotted out the Darwinian doctrine of the survival of the

fittest. Far from Dr. Otto's statements being the truth, a good case might be made out for the very opposite. Man without faith in the fatherhood of God will quickly lose faith in the brotherhood of man.

These gentlemen look for a new religion to be born of science. But they will look in vain. They miss the very character of science. Science can tell us neither right nor wrong. The scientist deals with the world as a going concern. He asks not whence it came nor what is its purpose—he merely tries to understand it as it is. He has no instruments and no method which can answer the questions of whence, whither, why. Napoleon's astronomer swept the skies with his telescope, and seeing no God through his lense, reported that God did not exist. God can not be seen through a lense or a test tube.

Does science definitely prove that the six day creation is an impossibility? That is quite within the province of science to investigate. Does it prove that the earth is much older than theologians once believed? That also is quite within the field of scientific investigation. But science can not deal at all with the question of creation itself. This does not mean that the scientist may not be a believer. Often he is a devout man. Gregor Mendel, for whom the Mendelian law is named, was an Augustinian friar making his discoveries in the garden of his monastery. Abbot Mendel saying Mass was Abbot Mendel as a man of religion. Abbot Mendel studying the arguments for the existence of God was Abbot Mendel as a theologian. Abbot Mendel crossing peas was Abbot Mendel as a scientist. He never saw anything in his garden to change any of the conclusions he arrived at as a theologian. He might well have gone in for Biblical science and as a result changed his mind about the date of composition of some book of the Bible—but his theology rested upon deeper principles than the dates and authorship of books.

If, then, religion and science occupy different fields, just what are those

fields? How the two disciplines differ in method can be shown by further illustration.

PART II

The late Canon B. H. Streeter, in his excellent treatise *Reality*, has given an illustration which helps us as once to distinguish between scientific knowledge and religious knowledge. We are asked first to look at a map of Venice in Boedeker's handbook. There we see the streets and canals and the location of main buildings. To bring the illustration close to home, we might take a street map of Chicago showing us the north side, the south side, the west side, the suburbs, and the lake. We could trace the course of Michigan Boulevard and see the location of Lincoln Park and the University of Chicago. A great deal can be learned about a city from a study of such a map. The information should be accurate and strictly up to date. Streeter suggested that we turn from the map of Venice to Turner's famous painting of Venice at sunset. We may also turn to many lovely paintings and artistic photographs of Chicago—some with the streets covered with winter's ice and snow; others done in the spring; some with the city's skyscrapers making their way up through the smoke; others showing the city's bridges under a full moon. The map knowledge is scientific; the picture knowledge is artistic. Both are true of Venice and Chicago. One gives us an aspect of the truth which the other misses. The Venice of the sunset painting will be much better understood if we have the map; the map knowledge of Chicago will be more complete and satisfying if we also have pictures of the great metropolis on Lake Michigan.

This type of illustration tells us that scientific knowledge is not the only knowledge there is and warns us that we should be very ignorant indeed if it were all we had. By the same token, the artistic view is limited. Have we not all known scientific men whose visions were due to a too close adhesion to scientific methods alone? Charles Darwin was one of them. It

became a subject of lamentation in his later years that he had lost the powers of appreciation of many of the finer things of life. Thus he was in a sense a martyr to scientific truth, and the world is his debtor for it. And, alas, have we never known of artists whose absorption in "art for art's sake" dulled their moral senses? Emerson in his journals wailed against certain musicians for their obtuseness to the issues involved in Negro slavery—content if only they might live with their music. One feels something of this when he looks down from the gallery of the chapel in the Versailles Palace. There before that beautiful high altar were performed the haunting masses of Mozart, while a few miles away in Paris the people starved. There is still a third factor involved here which is not the concern of this paper—namely, the ethical. The ancient Greek trinity of the good, the true, and the beautiful still presents for us the ideal of human excellence. No one of the three may be lacking nor be predominant over the others without resulting in distortion and harm of some sort.

Are we to admit, then, that scientific knowledge is limited? And that if we knew all that the method of science could ever achieve in all future ages, we should still remain ignorant of whole aspects of life? That is exactly what Streeter's illustration impresses upon us. For instance, which of us would call a scientific analysis of the Sistine Madonna complete? How many of us would accept as adequate a scientific description of a violin recital by Kreisler? Or for that matter, what college boy would be content with a scientific description of the May moon? What of the love of man and woman, of parent and child? The scientific descriptions would all be excellent as far as they went, but they would miss something very wonderful. And that something is captured for us by other methods.

The scientific method is analytical—its product is a diagram. Just why is easy to see. Science is built up by the

classification of objects. It is fairly accurate to classify chemical elements, but the moment we begin to rise in the scale of their combination, the task grows more difficult. It is fairly easy to classify the lower forms of life, but the higher we rise the greater the difficulty, because the higher we rise the more individualized life becomes. When we reach man in his highly complex organization of body and mind, we are more than ever confused. No two of us are exactly alike and the so-called laws of human behavior are very broad generalizations. We may estimate what men will do under given circumstances, say an air-raid alarm; but we can not prophesy with absolute certainty what any one man of the group will do. We are reminded here of the actuarial tables of the life insurance companies which are so accurately arranged as to make the insurance business a very lucrative one. Yet they do not know just how long any one of their clients will live. Many psychologists go on the assumption that psychology is an exact science. Of course it is not and never can be. But that does not discredit psychology. It teaches us a great deal about the human mind; it gives us valid knowledge. The fact that it can not absolutely pigeon-hole each individual in all his thoughts, words, and actions is nothing against it. All this leads up to the inevitable conclusion that human personality defies complete classification. To the extent that each person is unique, he escapes the scientific precision which is possible lower in the scale of beings. And this something in personality that science misses is qualitative rather than quantitative. We know which elements go into making a man, physically speaking, but his quality is missed by our science. Man in this instance is like the city of Venice. The scientific description is excellent and accurate, but diagramatic. Just how far the scientific description misses the mark may be judged by comparing it with a real person—let us say, the scientist's baby or his mother.

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If there is any doubt at all about the closeness of religion to art, it can be quickly dissipated by a glance at the New Testament. The world's supreme religious leader, Jesus of Nazareth, made no attempt to be scientific. He painted word pictures. The story of the Prodigal Son, the Good Samaritan, the Pharisee, and the Publican are told in a few sentences, and yet they give us who live nineteen centuries later truths about the nature of things which can not be seen through a microscope. A field of lilies, a sower going forth to sow, birds nesting in a tree, children playing in the market place, a wedding festival; yes, and a graphic parable of the sheep and the goats on the Day of Judgement—these are the weapons of his arsenal. Yet Jesus did not attempt to be artistic, for he did not compose short stories to entertain as modern professionals do. His aim was the imparting of truth, a kind of truth that would result in action on the part of his hearers. He wanted them to see beyond the beauty of the lilies to the infinite abundance of the Eternal from which that beauty comes, and to trust that Eternal with good intentions toward His creation. He wanted every man to see himself as a Prodigal Son, to forsake his folly, and to return to the Father's arms; and his story insists that the Father is waiting until we mortals cease violating the laws of the spiritual and live our lives as children of God. In other words, religion's following of the methods akin to art is not a case of art for art's sake at all—it is art for the sake of truth. Religion is a way of knowing. By faith we actually add to our knowledge.

Religion in the past has often erred by opposing science. In so doing, religion betrayed a lack of faith. "By identifying the new learning with heresy you identify orthodoxy with ignorance," writes Erasmus. We are reminded that two or three states of the Union have laws on their statute books forbidding the teaching of the evolutionary hypothesis in state-supported schools—laws placed there at

the insistence of devoted church people who made the error of treating the Bible as a scientific text book.

Religion and science are not enemies, since each has its own distinct approach to truth; and since neither is complete, it follows that they must be seen as partners. If we lay claim to being positivists, that we will believe nothing except that which science can prove, we shall be only half men. There is a generation of half-men emerging from our colleges. Whole areas of their natures are neglected. They see themselves, to use the metaphor of a novelist, as "bundles of cellular matter on its way to becoming manure." They would be shocked to hear themselves described as inhibited, and yet that is exactly what they are—inhibited spiritually. The most divine part of their natures lies undeveloped while their vision of life is bounded by the confines of earthly birth and death. Worship to them is a closed book.

In 1858, Emerson, in his immortal Divinity School Address, told the students and faculty of the Harvard Divinity School, "... what greater calamity can fall upon a nation than the loss of worship? Then all things go to decay. Genius leaves the temple to haunt the senate or the market. Literature becomes frivolous. Science is cold. The eye of youth is not lighted by the hope of other worlds, and age is without honor. Society lives to trifles, and when men die we do not mention them." The man who does not worship is not fully man. Non-worshipping man is man defying his kinship with God, man failing to cultivate his spiritual powers, and man refusing to remind himself regularly and frequently that his whole approach to life must be colored by his faith that this life is only a segment of the whole.

Let no man deny his true nature under the plea that his scientific training has made faith impossible. A true knowledge of what science can and can not teach us will free us to be sons of God. Science then can be made to fit into its place in the pattern of the

whole. In other words, it can be our servant and not our master, enrich our life instead of impoverishing it, and make us more, not less, human. Science as the partner of religion will help religion to perform its task of fitting men for their divine destiny.

Age of Reason

(Continued from page 121)

An important question now is, "How dear is peace?" One man, Neville Chamberlain, held peace too dearly. He sold out half a world in order to have "peace in our time." In the future we know that we must reason before we hold anything too dear, even peace.

The fourth thing that requires our reasoning is economics. If one were to ask in this auditorium what was thought of John L. Lewis, probably nine out of ten would say that he ought to be shot or that he is a traitor, but I wonder how many of you who say that have reasoned and have come to a reasonable decision. I can think of no better example of blind acceptance in economics than the public's acceptance of the one-sided presentation of the coal situation. That is a challenge to our reasoning.

The first question in any economic reasoning is "What is any individual entitled to?" We must come to a reasonable decision here as a basis for all economic theories and beliefs. In America we have an economic aristocracy. We say that we have free enterprise, and yet we have concentrated wealth in the hands of small groups while we have many with little or no chance to rise above mere subsistence. Is that freedom of opportunity? Yes, we must reason about economics if we are to have any kind of freedom.

What we do the next few years will determine the fate and the freedom of the world in years to come. Reasoning isn't the easiest road to take, but certainly the reward would more than repay the effort. The reward for complete reasoning would be a completely free world.

Henry David Thoreau and Bronson Alcott: A Study of Relationships

Frances Henry

To many, Amos Bronson Alcott is known only through his daughter, Louisa May. Students of Early American Literature are more familiar with the life and writings of Henry David Thoreau. But, in this paper, Miss Henry has attempted to show exactly what Alcott meant to Thoreau from the standpoint of encouragement and affection.

Miss Henry was teaching English in the Laboratory School at the time this article was written. She received her Master of Arts degree from Indiana State Teachers College in June, 1942, and taught the following year in the University High School in Bloomington, Indiana. She has given up teaching temporarily, however, to accept a position as cryptographer in the Army Signal Corps.

The stark individuality, the succinct phrases, the bed-rock sincerity of Henry David Thoreau seem particularly refreshing in an age when many writers are superficially cluttering the surface problems of human relationships. To look at Thoreau in one of his own most intimate human relationships, that with Amos Bronson Alcott, is perhaps, therefore, not too irrelevant in this uncertain and tumultuous time.

When one remembers Thoreau, one probably thinks first of that now trite term, "rugged individualist." One may also recall his stay at Walden Pond, his night in the Concord jail for refusing to pay his tax, and his connection with the transcendental group. On the other hand, Bronson Alcott is to many, simply the father of Louisa May. Further reflection may bring to light certain other associations with the name Alcott. He was a teacher; he was impractical; he, too, was a transcendentalist. It is the purpose of this discussion to integrate these somewhat isolated high spots in

the lives of Thoreau and Alcott and to show precisely what Alcott meant to Thoreau.

Alcott was a teacher—an excellent one. Because Concord was not yet ready for his methods, he had to give up the one vocation for which he was pre-eminently suited. Even before Thoreau and Alcott actually met, knowledge of Bronson Alcott's educational principles was to influence, or at least to fortify, Thoreau's own theories of education. When, in October, 1837, Thoreau's school board demanded that he whip the students in the interests of discipline, the young teacher chose six students at random, surprised them with a good beating, and resigned from his position. Presumably Thoreau had intended to repeat the experiment of Alcott is his famous Temple School; when things went wrong, Alcott used to punish himself.¹

Both men were, at different times, arrested for refusing to pay the poll tax. A kindly neighbor paid Mr. Alcott's so that (to his disappointment) he was not put in prison. From this time on, Thoreau refused to pay the tax and when he was arrested some years later, he did actually spend the night in the local jail. This revolt of two intelligent, otherwise law-abiding citizens seems queer—and was so regarded by many of their contemporaries. Alcott wrote in his journal that Emerson thought such conduct was "mean and skulking, and in bad taste."² The point to the whole thing, says Van Wyck Brooks, was that the

¹Henry S. Canby, *Thoreau* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1939), p. 179.

²Odell Shepard, *The Journals of Bronson Alcott* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1938), pp. 183-84.

government was backing the Mexican War; neither Alcott nor Thoreau wished to trace the course of his dollar until it bought a man or a gun to shoot a Mexican.³ Alcott called their action a "dignified non-compliance with the injunction of Civil powers." This idea of "dignified non-compliance" came to Alcott, and later to Thoreau, from their reading in Oriental literature. Years later a young Oxford student, Mohandas Gandhi, came upon this theory of non-compliance while reading Thoreau. The young man was so impressed that he carried the idea back to his native India, calling it "passive resistance."⁴

Thoreau's two-year residence in his hut at Walden Pond was odd enough in the eyes of a great many to brand him an "eccentric." Yet he went to Walden six months after Alcott returned from a similar retreat. Although Alcott's Fruitlands experiment was unsuccessful in a pecuniary sense, Henry S. Salt believed that it stimulated Thoreau's inclination to a forest life.⁵ Alcott's stay at Fruitlands, Thoreau's life at Walden, Emerson's desire for a summer house, and later the establishment at Brook Farm all become part of the early nineteenth century scene and not isolated impracticalities when one recalls that "back to nature" was a popular cry of the day and that the financial crash of 1837 made the simple life imperative for many and coveted by more.

One of the few labels that Thoreau ever applied to himself was "transcendentalist." "I am a poet, a mystic, and a Transcendentalist," he wrote in his journal.⁶ Alcott's place in the transcendental world is made clear at once if we accept Frothingham's state-

³Van Wyck Brooks, *The Flowering of New England* (New York: E. P. Dutton, 1940), p. 366.

⁴Shepard, *The Journals of Bronson Alcott*, pp. 185-84.

⁵Henry S. Canby, "Thoreau and the Machine Age," *The Yale Review* 20:517, March, 1931.

⁶Henry S. Salt, *Life of Henry Thoreau* (London: Walter Scott, Limited), p. 64.

⁷*Ibid.*, vol. V, p. 4.

ment that at one time Alcott, not Emerson, was the reputed leader of the transcendentalists.⁸ Both men were indebted to Emerson for their introduction to the Oriental literature which formed so much of the foundation of the whole movement. An aversion to the eighteenth century rationalism dominated by the thinking of Hume and Locke made the Concord men welcome the Hindu *Bhagavad-gita*. The *Gita* satisfied their desire for an idealistic philosophy, and it lent itself to the eclectic method of thought then popular.

Thoreau, Emerson, and Alcott, however, were more than idealistic philosophers. They were, at least the first two, practical Yankees living in a work-a-day world. To fulfill this strictly Yankee demand for practicality, they read Confucius. Of this reading Christy says:

Emerson found in Confucius justification for his remaining in the normal ways of men. Thoreau scorned line manners; Emerson liked them . . . Still, Thoreau read the Confucian books, probably just as much as Emerson, but he used them in his own way.⁹

Finally, poetry for the artistic needs of the Concord group was provided by Mohammedan literature. To this rich mixture of Eastern philosophy, Alcott added a touch of Greek Platonic realism; this realism Thoreau made peculiarly his own. From this varied background each of the Concord transcendentalists took what he wanted and ignored the remainder. Thoreau immersed himself in nature; Alcott made the universal scriptures of men his chief interest; Emerson wrote of the over-soul. This personal selection is the key to the puzzle of the union that flourished among such ardent individualists. Transcendentalism could, apparently, be all things to all men.

Growing out of this interest in transcendentalism were a number of clubs

whose membership usually included both Thoreau and Alcott. As early as 1850, Alcott, Emerson, George Ripley, Margaret Fuller, Elizabeth Peabody, Theodore Parker, and W. H. Channing formed a group known as the Symposium, also referred to as the Transcendental Club and the Club of the Like-Minded.¹⁰ This last may have been something of a jest as the members of the club were rarely of like mind on anything. From this loose organization came the *Dial*, which was, for Thoreau and Alcott, the most effective way of getting an audience. In 1844 the *Dial* failed, and the Symposium languished. It was not long, however, until Emerson was discussing a scheme for a Town and Country Club. In 1850 Alcott met with Lowell and Emerson to discuss a Town and Country Magazine. It seems probable, says Odell Shepard, that the origin of *The Atlantic Monthly* was in this conversation.¹¹ Later the Saturday Club was formed, incorporated, and finally resulted in the Atlantic Club and *The Atlantic Monthly* in 1857.¹²

Differences and similarities between Thoreau and Alcott in broad issues have been pointed out above: Both were teachers—and good ones; both refused to support a government whose actions they did not approve; both went “back to nature” for a time—one to fail in his venture, the other to succeed; both were transcendentalists. To catch up the intimate threads of their personal life together is a more elusive task.

To capture this personal equation one must see them spending days together in the country—Alcott often carrying the chain for Thoreau, the surveyor. A typical example is the time they spent thus together at Watson's “Hillside” in the fall of 1854. Of passing interest is the fact that

Thoreau's surveying for Watson is referred to in T. R. Ybarra's current book *Young Man of Caracas*; Watson was a relative of Ybarra's mother.¹³ When it came to mere walking Thoreau was good for a twenty mile ramble any day, but Alcott usually preferred to perch on the nearest fence post. One gets the feeling that Alcott's love of nature was more superficial, less deeply rooted and innate, than was Thoreau's. Canby says that for Thoreau love of woman was entirely sublimated into his passion for nature.¹⁴ Alcott's interest in nature was aesthetic, intellectual, almost religious; it was never utilitarian. It is as if the two men stood at the same point in time, but looked in opposite directions. Alcott looked forward to a nature tamed and controlled; Thoreau looked backward to the time before the white man came.

Part of the picture, too, are the many winter evenings when Alcott walked through the snow to Thoreau's hut at Walden to spend the evening listening to Thoreau read the long manuscript of the *Week*, based upon ideas in many of which Alcott did not believe at all. At this time Alcott's recognition of Thoreau's genius as a writer was an invaluable encouragement to the lonely younger man whose ability had not yet been considered even by Emerson. Bronson Alcott later set people to reading Thoreau.

The summer of 1852 found Alcott busy on a new hobby—genealogy. Thoreau commented in his journal:

He who wrote of Human Culture . . . now reading the wills and epitaphs of the Alcocks with the zeal of a professed antiquarian . . . Has visited a crockery dealer in Boston who trades with Alcocks of Staffordshire, England, great potters who took a prize at the world's fair . . . Has got the dealer to describe the persons of Staffordshire Alcocks, and finds them to be of the right type, even to their noses. He knew they must be so . . . Has

¹⁰Mason Wade Margaret Fuller: *Whetstone of Genius* (New York: Viking Press, 1940), p. 58.

¹¹Shepard, *The Journals of Bronson Alcott*, p. 225.

¹²Edward Waldo Emerson, *The Years of the Saturday Club* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1918), p. 11.

⁸Octavius Brooks Frothingham, *Transcendentalism in New England* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1876), p. 257.

⁹*Ibid.*, p. 195.

¹³Thomas Ybarra, *Young Man of Caracas* (New York: Ives Washburn, 1941), p. 254.

¹⁴Canby, *Thoreau*, p. 12.

some design to collect and print epitaphs . . . Talks of going to England—says it would be in his way—to visit the Alcocks of Staffordshire.¹⁵

Thoreau's superior attitude toward his genealogically-minded fellow would be more convincing, but less amusing, if we did not know that Thoreau himself liked to think he was the possessor of an interesting heritage. Canby says:

He could be as ridiculous as Alcott over genealogy, and liked to play with the idea that the name might have come from the hero of the Scandinavian north, Thorer the Dog-footed.¹⁶

In 1855 the Alcotts moved from Boston to Walpole, New Hampshire, where they settled for three years. In the following spring Alcott visited Concord and suggested to Thoreau that the country in which Walpole lay was good walking-ground, and that he would be glad to see Thoreau there. In September, therefore, Thoreau made one of his rare trips away from Concord to spend a short time with the Alcotts. Thoreau went twice to the Maine woods to be with his Indians; he went several times to Cape Cod with Ellery Channing because Channing was as good a walker as himself; he went to Minnesota later to regain his health. Why did he go to Walpole? There were no Indians; Alcott did not share his enthusiasm for apparently aimless rambling; his health was good. Could not this trip have been motivated by a simple human desire to be with his friend?

As pointed out previously, one of the reasons that Thoreau and Alcott refused to pay the poll tax was that the government supported slavery. To put the matter simply, both men were avowed abolitionists. Their interest in the anti-slavery movement was more than a rhetorical thing for Mrs. Thoreau, Emerson, and Alcott had special rooms in their homes for fugitive slaves. For these men the chief event of 1859 was the John Brown affair.

¹⁵Thoreau, *Journals*, vol. IV, pp. 293-94.

¹⁶Canby, *Thoreau*, p. 14.

The concord group was in sympathy with Brown, and it was Alcott, Thoreau, and Emerson who were chiefly responsible for arranging the memorial services held on the day of Brown's execution. Previously Thoreau had written to Governor Wise on behalf of John Brown, hoping that the governor might stay the execution. For once Thoreau stepped out of his shell to participate in a matter of public interest. There is little doubt that Thoreau would have defended Brown even if everybody in Concord or in the whole world (and Concord was his world) had been on the opposite side. Would he, without the encouragement of at least one friend, have arranged public meetings and written to the governor? There is no exact evidence upon which to base an answer to this question. We do know, however, that he did have the encouragement of Bronson Alcott.

On precisely what grounds did these two men meet as friends? Canby says that never did two more different temperaments spend profitably so much time together.¹⁷ Particularly significant is this statement by Edward Waldo Emerson:

Thoreau and Alcott always had friendly relations, though they were not draw one to the other. Thoreau with his hardy independence, was impatient of Alcott's philosophic calm while failing to comfortably maintain his family.¹⁸

Early in January, 1848, Thoreau commented on Alcott in a letter to Emerson:

He is certainly the youngest man of his age we have seen, just at the threshold of life. When I looked at his gray hairs, his conversation sounded pathetic; but I looked again, and they reminded me of the gray dawn. . . .¹⁹

It seems almost as if Thoreau admired and respected Alcott in spite of objective judgment. True, the younger

man was vaguely irked by his elder's impracticality, and even less vaguely annoyed at his pedagogic habit of trying to integrate the philosophies of the world and then preach this ultimate synthesis to mankind. One evidence of this respect for Alcott's judgment is the fact that Thoreau confided to him first knowledge of the *Week*, and to him Thoreau brought a copy of *Walden* on the day of its publication.

The pathetic thing about Thoreau's whole experience with friendship was that no one ever claimed more from his friends, and no one, finally, was ever so disappointed in friendship. Thoreau's ideal was perfection. That he did long for companions is amply shown in his own words:

What if we feel a yearning to which no breast answers? I walk alone. My heart is full. Feelings impede the current of my thoughts. I knock on the earth for my friend. I expect to meet him at every turn; but no friend appears, and perhaps none is dreaming of me.²⁰

In comparing Thoreau's actual capacity for making friends with that of the genial Alcott there is no evidence that Alcott could equal Thoreau's acquaintance with the town drunkards, the human derelicts, and the poor Irish; by persons at the other end of the social scale, Alcott was hardly accepted at all.²¹

Undoubtedly the final authority on what Alcott meant to Thoreau is Thoreau himself. Warm and indicative of sincere liking are these sentences:

There was a welcome visitor who came through the village, through snow and rain and darkness, till he saw my lamp through the trees, and shared with me some long winter evenings. One of the last of the philosophers, Concord gave him to the world. . . . A true friend of man,—almost the only friend of human progress.²²

(Continued on page 152)

¹⁷Canby, *Thoreau*, p. 254.

¹⁸Edward Waldo Emerson, *op. cit.*, p. 101.

¹⁹Franklin B. Sanborn and William T. Harris, *Amos Bronson Alcott: His Life and Philosophy* (Boston: Roberts Brothers, 1895), pp. 444-45.

²⁰Thoreau, *Journals*, vol. VII, pp. 416-17.


²¹Odell Shepard, *Pedlar's Progress* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1937), p. 412.

²²Sanborn and Harris, *op. cit.*, p. 428.

H. R. 2034

J. F. Mackell

Dr. Mackell, Professor of Physics and Chairman of the Science Department of Indiana State Teachers College, more than any other person, is responsible for initiating a movement which may have more ultimate significance for world peace and international understanding than any other wartime enterprise sponsored by Indiana State Teachers College. Dr. Mackell's account reports the historical development of the movement and what the movement hopes to accomplish, and it solicits co-operation in consummating the movement. The Journal joins in wishing him well in the enterprise.

Shortly after the United States entered the present war, the president of Indiana State Teachers College appointed a committee of the faculty known as the War Emergency Planning Committee. This committee consisted of the following members: J. F. Mackell, Chairman, V. E. Breidenbaugh, F. M. Curtis, R. F. Mc-
Daid, D. W. Morris, M. O. Peters, J. F. Sembower, and S. A. Yager. The first meeting of this committee was held on January 30, 1942, and among other matters which were discussed to meet the war emergency on the part of the college, the chairman made a suggestion concerning the advisability of the committee's sponsoring a project which would enable the students in teachers colleges of foreign countries, especially those in the Western Hemisphere, to be exchanged for students in teachers colleges in the United States, with the hope that this program might further the "good neighbor" policy and enhance relations between our country and those of other nations in this hemisphere. It was

thought that the plan might be extended later to include nations all over the world.

At a subsequent meeting of the committee, the suggestion concerning teacher exchange was discussed in some detail and finally a plan was drawn up and submitted to the faculty and the administration of the college. This plan met with such widespread approval that the committee was encouraged to seek ways and means of putting it into effect. The chairman and other members of the committee proceeded to get in touch with some of the officials of the administration at Washington and with certain members of Congress, inasmuch as the plan called for a federal appropriation. Congressman Noble Johnson of the 6th Congressional District of Indiana gave the plan his hearty approval, as did other members of Congress. Contacts were also established with Mr. Nelson Rockefeller, Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs, the Pan-American Union, and other officials in Washington, and it was soon found that the plan was looked upon with favor. One member of the House of Representatives, Mr. Karl E. Mundt of the 1st Congressional District of South Dakota, who is known to some of the members of our committee and who has appeared on this campus, was especially interested in the plan. Mr. Mundt had been interested in some such plan for some time, and he had already a plan of his own in mind which was somewhat similar to the one that we were proposing. Mr. Mundt gave the committee so much encouragement that a skeleton of the plan was submitted to him for approval. He immediately contacted Mr. Nelson Rockefeller and other interested parties in Washington, and our committee was asked to draw up the plan

in more detail so that it might be drafted in the form of a bill to be presented in the House of Representatives by Mr. Mundt. After many weeks of planning and discussion, with the counsel and advice of President Tirey, the following plan was submitted to Representative Mundt by the committee:

EDUCATIONAL PLAN FOR HEMISPHERIC SOLIDARITY

Proposed by

The War Emergency Planning Committee

of

Indiana State Teachers College

It is proposed that Indiana State Teachers College sponsor a plan which calls for the Federal Government to underwrite an educational program looking toward the development of a better understanding among the several nations of the North and South American continents. The plan is brief is as follows:

1. The Federal Government will be asked to appropriate a sum of two million dollars per year for a period of five years to underwrite approximately two thousand scholarships per year valued at one thousand dollars each. These scholarships will pay the expenses of one thousand carefully selected students from the several state-supported teachers colleges of the United States who will be sent during their junior year to South American, Central American, or North American teachers colleges to pursue work in teacher training in those institutions, and of one thousand students in teacher-training institutions in the other Americas to study in the United States. These students will return to their respective colleges in their native countries for the senior year to complete work for teaching certificates.

2. The following plan for selection of students in the United States is suggested:

- (a) The plan shall be administered by the Pan-American Union acting with the advice and counsel of the Inter-American Co-ordinator.
- (b) Candidates shall be selected from students who are finishing their freshman year and who are enrolled in state supported teachers colleges which are members

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- of the American Association of Teachers Colleges.
- (c) Apportionment shall be two students for each congressional district, with the remainder of the one thousand to be selected at large.
 - (d) Selection in the several states shall be supervised by the State Boards of Education in the several states acting in co-operation with the Pan-American Union and the Inter-American Co-ordinator.
 - (e) Students at large shall be selected by the United States Office of Education under the advice and counsel of the Pan-American Union and the Inter-American Co-ordinator.
 - (f) The apportionment for each state shall be distributed among the several eligible state-supported teachers colleges of the state in approximate proportion to the college enrollment of students who are candidates for teachers certificates.
 - (g) The apportionment at large shall be such that nation-wide distribution over a period of years be obtained.
 - (h) Assignment of student quotas to the neighboring countries shall be under the direction of the Pan-American Union and the Inter-American Co-ordinator.
 - (i) Candidates for scholarships shall subject themselves to physical and aptitude examinations under the general supervision of the Pan-American Union and the Inter-American Co-ordinator.

5. The following plan for selection of students in the other American countries is suggested:

- (a) The entire plan shall be under the direct supervision of the Pan-American Union and the Inter-American Co-ordinator.
- (b) Local administration shall be in the hands of the Ministers of Education in the several countries.
- (c) Apportionment shall be on the basis of population.
- (d) Colleges participating shall be those which have as their primary function the training of teachers for the elementary and secondary schools.
- (e) Students participating shall be subjected to physical and aptitude examinations as directed by the Pan-American Union and the Inter-American Co-ordinator.

4. Teachers colleges in the United States and in the other Americas to whom students are assigned shall assume responsibility for the welfare of these students and for their progress. From time to time reports shall be made from the administrative officers of the colleges to the Pan-American Union and to the Inter-American Co-ordinator. Students who fail to maintain satisfactory scholarship records shall have their scholarships discontinued after appropriate notice has been given.

5. Colleges in all the American countries which participate in this plan shall agree to accept the credits earned by these scholarship students in all participating institutions and these credits shall count toward graduation at full face value.

6. It is felt that the plan should be a *teachers college plan* and should not be confused with other similar programs fostered for economic or commercial purposes since the sole aim of this plan is to cement a feeling of solidarity and promote the "good neighbor" policy of the United States Government through the agency of the public schools.

7. It is readily seen that after this program has been in effect for two or three years, the whole complexion of our teachers college campus life will become more and more cosmopolitan, and furthermore, there will be in each of these countries, including the United States, a number of well-trained and carefully selected instructors teaching in all public school situations from the elementary school through the high school who will have firsthand familiarity with our good neighbors and their customs. While this is going on in our own schools, a somewhat similar transition will be taking place in our neighboring countries. Thus it appears that such a program would be a relatively inexpensive but far reaching method of getting acquainted with our neighbors. This we must do if we expect to understand them and if we expect them to understand us.

Mr. Mundt, with the advice and counsel of Representative Noble Johnson, and in co-operation with Mr. Nelson Rockefeller and the Pan-American Union, drafted Bill H. R. 2054, which was presented in the House of Representatives March 1, 1945. The remarks made by Representative Mundt at the time of the

introduction of the bill are duly recorded in the Congressional Record of March 1, 1945. In his remarks on the floor of the House, Mr. Mundt gave Indiana State Teachers College and the War Emergency Planning Committee due credit for originating the idea, and the bill itself incorporates all the essential features enumerated in the original plan. After the bill was introduced, it was referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs, which is headed by Representative Sol Bloom.

Subsequent to March 1, the committee and administrative officials of the Indiana State Teachers College have endeavored to elicit support from other teachers colleges throughout the United States, and the results of these efforts have been most gratifying. There are in the files of the committee at the present time scores of letters and telegrams from presidents of teachers colleges all over the United States, and without exception these communications indicate approval.

In drafting the bill, due consideration was given to all the possible controversial points which might arise. For example, it was felt that considerable preparation would be needed by the young people who were going to participate in this exchange program. Therefore, it was thought that seniors in high school should be made acquainted with the possibility of obtaining one of these scholarships so that when they became freshmen in teachers colleges they might elect language and other courses which would better fit them for meeting the situations which they would likely encounter on matriculating in colleges in foreign countries. It was felt further that this should be strictly a teachers college program and should be one that would be open to young people rather than to older teachers who had had experience and whose ideas are more likely to have been crystalized. Those of the committee who have been thinking about this matter for some time feel that this is a very important point to be con-

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Indiana State Teachers College

The Schools and the Home front

In June, the Educational Service Branch of the Department of Information, Office of Price Administration, published a special summer session issue of the O. P. A. BULLETIN FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES. This bulletin tells of the many activities utilized in teaching price control and rationing which have been carried on in schools and colleges, and also of the activities planned for the school year, 1943-1944. Many helpful suggestions are given to educators from the elementary-school teacher to the college administrator on how to present to their students the why and how of price regulation, rent control, rationing and inflation.

Space does not permit a complete summary of this interesting bulletin, but the passages reproduced below are the ones which are probably of more immediate interest to classroom teachers and directors of student activities.

In May, 1943, OPA completed a year of experience with the General Maximum Price Regulation. The GMPR and other regulations as is commonly known, had set ceiling prices for most retail sales at the highest prices charged during March, 1942. Merchants had been required to post ceiling prices of specified articles. Nevertheless, it was obvious that, to protect the law-abiding majority, stronger measures were necessary to curb the few black market operators who threatened to undermine the whole price-control program. In certain places, the criminal sellers forced well-intentioned merchants to raise prices in order to stay in business. That is, black market sellers diverted goods from regular trade channels so that otherwise law-abiding merchants had to buy and sell at black market prices or close their doors.

Under the new price regulations, uniform ceiling prices are applied to each of the four classes of stores in the community. No merchant can charge more than these community-wide top prices, although he is free to charge less. The prices of certain foods

are being reduced by government order to levels prevailing last year. Foods on the lists already published include most of the items on the weekly grocery list. The new price program puts government price tags on close to 80 per cent of the food-stuffs in the family market basket.

Holding the cost of living where it is and observing rationing regulations cheerfully and loyally—these are among the major tasks which face the American people in the months immediately ahead. Toward this over-all objective, teachers and administrators can make important contributions during the present summer. Instructors and students in college summer schools can engage in a variety of activities related to developing a better understanding of inflation, price regulation, rent control, and rationing. Likewise, teachers and school heads can donate time during the summer to the preparation of plans, bulletins, and other educational materials for use when school opens in the autumn. A major project suggested by the *Bulletin* is the enrollment of older high-school students as volunteers to aid the War Price and Rationing Boards in their communities.

During the summer of 1942, consultants of the Educational Services Branch of the Office of Price Administration spent a week or more in nineteen college workshops and from one to five days in 177 institutions of higher education. In nearly all of the colleges visited, staff members and students devoted considerable time to the study of civilian wartime living.

Schools, school systems and colleges produced, distributed, and used special bulletins and other materials on consumer's wartime problems. At all grade levels and in many subject matter fields, teachers presented the facts about price control and rationing

to their students. Student organizations launched study-action programs in the area of wartime economics.

Through the contributions of the schools, the Nation has already won many battles against wartime inflation and scarcity. But the war for economic stability is not yet won.

With the urgent economic situation in view, college summer schools can again join in the fight against inflation and unnecessary shortages. Through a study-action program in classrooms, in assembly halls, in extraclass activities, and in the community, these schools can bring the wartime economic message to the attention of their teaching staffs, their students, and other citizens. They can also emphasize this program where students are preparing to teach or are already teachers in service.

Teachers of many and varied subjects of study are doing their part to instruct their pupils in the why and how of wartime economic measures. In Detroit, mathematics teachers in the seventh and eighth grades have prepared and are using a study supplement which relates arithmetic computation and reasoning to the practical everyday problems of price control, rent control, and rationing. The biology teachers of Omaha are having pupils study a five-week unit on food shortages, rationing, and point budgeting as related to nutrition.

Social studies teachers in many cities are having pupils study inflationary dangers, price control, and rationing through the use of current newspapers and magazines. Home economics teachers in hundreds of cities are educating their pupils in the use of war rationing books to best advantage in the methods of buying under ceiling prices; they stress buying the food right food and conservation techniques.

Art teachers are helping in the preparation by pupils of posters, exhibits, strip films, and other visual devices to "bring home" to all pupils the urgency and meaning of rationing and price control. Teachers of English and dramatic arts are having pupils

write and present compositions, plays, and radio skits dealing with various aspects of the home front economic program.

The teacher can devise a variety of demonstrations and projects which help make price and rent control and rationing realistic and dynamic to students. In a blackboard discussion, the teacher can compare the prices of selected items at present and in August, 1939. This can be followed by a discussion of why price control is necessary and how price control is helping hold the cost of living where it is and aiding in holding down the cost of war.

With reference to shoe rationing, an elementary class can carry on a project such as the following: One student is selected as storekeeper. To him all students deliver their shoes. Other students then make up play money—\$10 bills, \$5 bills, and bills marked \$2.50. They each draw one bill from a box. Using this play money, they go to the "shoe store" where shoes are on sale at \$2.50 a pair. The student with the \$10 bill purchases four pairs; the student with the \$5 bill buys two pairs, etc. In this way students learn that without rationing, shoes are distributed on the basis of ability to pay, or first come first served. The class then sets up its War Price and Rationing Board which issues play sheets from a make-believe war ration book. Using play bills as before, each student can buy only one pair with his ration coupon no matter how much money he has. This shows what happens after rationing. A similar project can be carried on with reference to tire or gasoline rationing.

In most schools the teaching staff will devise other audio-visual means by which price regulation can be made interesting and understandable to all students in all classes.

Authorities agree that fighting the war at home, like fighting the war abroad, will require even greater effort and even more drastic living adjustments on the part of all civilians. This in turn will require even further adap-

tations of the school program to the wartime needs of civilians.

With this situation in mind, schools and school systems throughout America are now making plans for the school year, 1943-44. Many of these plans include a consideration of the economic problems which children, youth, and adults face on the home front. Although progress in this area of education has been made, there is still a great deal to be done.

In February 1943, staff members of the Branch visited every State Department of Education in the Nation and secured the whole-hearted cooperation of chief state school officers in the educational campaign on point rationing. Since then, these Departments and their officers have held meetings, issued bulletins, written articles, and enlisted the schools in their States in various rationing programs.

Bronson and Thoreau

(Continued from page 128)

If there is any doubt whether Alcott returned this esteem and affection, and in a much more open and demonstrative way, one needs only to read Alcott's sincere and human essay, "The Forester," which was published after Thoreau's death. The closing paragraph is typical:

We have been accustomed to consider him the salt of things so long that they must lose their savor without his to season them. And when he goes hence, then Pan is dead, and Nature ailing throughout.²³

Although Bronson Alcott's place in the American literary scene has been made secure on his own merits, he lives, too, in the universally resounding phrases of Henry David Thoreau. Far from negligible is the role of one who led the way in certain paths of thought and action, who brought his friend into contact with some of the great minds of the age, who early

²³Amos Bronson Alcott, "The Forester," *The Atlantic Monthly*, 9:445, April, 1862.

recognized and encouraged that friend's genius, who prompted the arch individualist to hew out his own rugged philosophy, and who offered freely and at all times the warm glow of human sympathy. This role Bronson Alcott played for Thoreau. No more suitable conclusion can be made than Thoreau's own exquisite bit of understatement:

Alcott is a geometer, a visionary . . . a substratum of practical skill and knowledge unquestionable, but overlaid and concealed by a faith in the unseen and impracticable, seeks to realize an entire life. . . . Will be the last man to be disappointed as the ages revolve. His attitude is one of greater faith and expectation than that of any man I know. . . . The most hospitable intellect embracing high and low. For children how much that means, for the insane and vagabond, for the poet and scholar.²⁴

²⁴Thoreau, *Journals*, vol. I, p. 452.

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sidered if the best results are to be obtained.

As regards the matter of expense in carrying out this program, it was aptly pointed out by Representative Mundt that the sum requested in the bill is really a trifle when compared to the potential benefits which should be derived. The entire proposed cost of carrying out the program for a period of five years is ten million dollars. When this is compared to the enormous outlay in carrying on a war, even for one day, the amount is indeed trifling. The officials at Indiana State Teachers College and the members of the War Emergency Planning Committee feel quite certain that some such plan as the one incorporated in Bill H. R. 2034 is certain to eventuate. Naturally, also, they are anxious that their own plan should be the one. They hope, therefore, that all of our alumni and every one else who is interested in education will get behind the bill in order that it may be brought out of committee and given a chance for passage.

Indiana State Teachers College

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses

Indiana State Teachers College 1942-1943

Each July issue of the *Journal* features the report of Master's theses completed during the year. The report in 1942 extended through thesis number 485, but since one failed to get included at that time it is being published now even though out of order.

SHATTUCK, RUTH. *Health Habits of High School Girls*. 55 pp. (No. 472).

PROBLEM. This study has been undertaken with a threefold purpose: first, a basis for planning a course of study in health education; second, a survey of a local situation, showing whether or not the teaching of this subject has been a success; and third, an indication of where to place the emphasis in health education.

METHOD. The questionnaire method was followed in the study. A list of 98 questions was prepared covering the following points: nutrition, rest, exercise, cleanliness, clothing, and general health habits.

FINDINGS. The results of the questionnaire show that 81 per cent of all the girls ate three meals a day. Seventy-three per cent ate candy between meals, while 50 per cent ate at least one bar a day. Eighty per cent ate fresh meat daily. Sixty-five per cent had fresh fruit every day. Only three per cent admitted doing without food to reduce. The survey showed 62 per cent drank milk daily.

Eighty-four per cent of the pupils had at least eight hours of sleep. Eighty per cent said they felt rested in the mornings.

Ninety-seven per cent walked at least two miles a day. Only 58 per cent of the girls swam; 59 per cent played tennis; 10 per cent played golf;

and 68 per cent of the girls roller skated. Eighty-three per cent of the girls had exercise from doing home duties.

The questionnaire revealed that 60 per cent took at least two baths per school week. Cosmetics were used by 90 per cent of the girls.

Seventy-six per cent of the girls had had their eyes tested, and 27 per cent of them needed glasses.

Only 26 per cent ever had ear trouble. Eighty-three per cent could hear everything said in the class room. Eighty-six per cent of the girls had colds the previous winter, and 57 per cent were absent more than two days from school on this account.

Fifty-three per cent visited a dentist once a year to have their teeth checked.

Eighty-six per cent changed hose daily, and 75 per cent changed underwear daily.

A high percentage, 71, had had the tuberculin test, with 65 per cent of them showing a negative test.

HARRIS, FRED E. *A measure of the Value of Recordings in Teaching Arithmetic*. 152 pp. (No. 484).

PROBLEM. It was the purpose of this experiment to determine the effectiveness of teaching certain processes in elementary arithmetic through the use of instructional recordings as compared with instruction through customary instructional procedures. The experiment was also designed to measure the value of a single repetition using each method. Incident to each presentation by each method was a measure of achievement in relation to ability.

METHOD. The experimental method was used. Four arithmetic processes were taught to the sixth grade pupils in two Terre Haute schools and in two Vigo County schools. Intelligence and achievement testing preceded classification of the groups. Control and experimental groups were established for the first presentation. Following each presentation, the groups were re-established in alternate form. Preliminary or survey tests and progress tests were devised to accompany each presentation.

FINDINGS. In three of the four parts of the experiment the mean progress test scores of the control group were greater than those of the experimental groups. In each successive part, however, the margin of superiority of the control group decreased. In terms of mean scores on progress tests, the experimental groups made greater gains upon a second presentation of materials in three of the four parts than did the control group.

Low correlation was found to exist in those areas where the lack of superiority of the control group was most prominent. The trend of progress tests scores indicating a lack of superiority of the control group was evident throughout the experiment.

Correlation figures indicated that the control group scored an achievement rating more nearly in line with their abilities after the first presentation of materials in the various parts. The experimental group developed a higher achievement rating after the materials had been presented a second time. The control group did not register an achievement rating in line with their abilities as did the experimental group.

KENNEDY, SISTER IRMA AGNES. *Trends in the Philosophy of Instruction*. 57 pp. (No. 485).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken to find out what has been and what is the philosophy of educators in regard to supervision of instruction.

PROCEDURE. First, an exhaustive study was made, through the Teachers' Special Library in Indianapolis,

of all the books that treated of supervision of instruction. The material was classified chronologically. Secondly, magazine articles that seemed to deal with the subject were selected from the *Readers Guide* and the *Education Index*. A large number of these articles was available in the Teachers' Special Library and the material procured therefrom was used to amplify the contributions from books on supervision of instruction.

The study was chronologically divided into first, the period prior to 1910, second, the time from approximately 1911 to 1930, and third, the period from 1931 until the present.

FINDINGS. There was practically no formal supervision of instruction during the first period considered. The supervisor's work seemed to consist mainly in creating a genial influence. During the first decade of the present century, the emergence of rigid standards is evident. Principals and other supervisors considered it their duty to make out lesson plans and see that they were carried out. This autocratic attitude continued during much of the second period considered. However, the literature of that time referred to a supervision which would be democratic and scientific. Greater teacher participation in administration was discussed. Research and experimentation were represented as concomitant with a democratic philosophy. In some cases, creative activities were mentioned. Letters of teachers and magazine articles seemed to infer that these ideals were, for the most part, theoretical.

More definite progress toward a democratic philosophy of supervision is evident at present. The supervisor of instruction seems to tend more to concern himself with the promotion of a child-centered school and with the maximum development of each child. He seeks to further such growth by stimulating maximum teacher-growth in personality, in instructional capacity, and in participation in professional relationships. Finally, the modern supervisor of instruction seems to realize that child-growth and

teacher-growth are closely allied to his own professional growth.

JOHNSON, NORRIS ELOISE. *A Study to Determine the Predictive Accuracy of the Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Test*. 47 pp. (No. 486).

PROBLEM. It was the purpose to determine the accuracy of the Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Test in predicting the reading achievement of kindergarten and beginning first-grade children.

METHOD. The writer selected fifty-five kindergarten pupils from the public schools of two Indiana cities. The children were divided into two groups. Each group was the beginning class of the school. Group I was given the Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Test in December, 1941. In January, 1942, the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test was administered. During the middle of May, the group was given the Gray Oral Reading Test and one devised by the writer. In January, 1942, the Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Test was administered to Group II. This test was immediately followed by the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test. In April, 1942, the group was tested to determine reading achievement by the Gray Oral Reading Test and by a test devised by the writer.

FINDINGS. The following data of Group I were noteworthy:

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and the Stanford-Binet mental age scores is .73.

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and the Gray Oral time and error scores is .58.

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and the Gray Oral reading error scores is .54.

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and Writer's time, word, and paragraph scores is .60.

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and Writer's word and paragraph scores is .65.

The following data of Group II were noteworthy:

The correlation between the Van

Wagenen and the Metropolitan scores is .57.

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and the Gray Oral time and error scores is .74.

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and the Gray Oral reading error scores is .68.

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and Writer's time, word, and paragraph scores is .81.

The correlation between the Van Wagenen and Writer's word and paragraph scores is .65.

In view of the limitations of this study, the conclusions to be drawn are:

The Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Test had high enough correlations to indicate that it contributes valuable information for the selection of children for special reading preparation.

The Van Wagenen and Metropolitan reading readiness tests were equally reliable for selecting children who might have difficulty in reading.

No child with a mental age of less than five years, two months scored forty—or average—on the reading readiness test.

Kindergarten children who can read scored below the scoring bracket on the standardized reading achievement test.

VANCLEAVE, R. HAROLD. *A Study of the Vocational Pursuits of Teachers' Children*. 38 pp. (No. 487).

PROBLEM. To discover the probable effect of the occupations of fathers and mothers on the vocational choices of their children; to determine whether the children of teachers become teachers or if they prefer to enter other vocations.

METHOD. Nine hundred questionnaires were sent to the living retired male teachers of the state of Indiana. The questionnaire sent to each of the retired teachers asked for the position held by each before retirement, the names and addresses of his children, and the vocation of his father and mother. From the returned question-

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naires, a list of 475 children's names and addresses was obtained, and questionnaires were sent to these children.

The questionnaire sent to each of the children asked for his name, present vocation, type of work if teaching, and reasons for the selection of his vocation. The data given in the returned questionnaires provided the material for this thesis.

FINDINGS. The findings were that the children of retired teachers have not remained in nor found positions in the state in which their parents taught, but have found homes from coast to coast and from Canada to Mexico. Those who remained in the state settled in the large cities, while the parents retired to the smaller towns and rural areas of the state.

Thirty per cent of the children of retired teachers became teachers, but only 20 per cent did so through the influence of their parents.

Fifty-two per cent chose their occupations through choice; 21 per cent "fell into" their vocation by chance; 6 per cent took their vocation through necessity; and 21 per cent entered their occupation through parents' wishes.

In conclusion, therefore, the probable effect of the occupation of the parents upon the vocational choice of their children is small, but positive and significant.

BREEDEN, CHARLES L. *Follow-up Study of Graduates of Special Industrial Arts Course from 1925 to 1940.* 104 pp. (No. 488).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken with a four-fold purpose: first, to find out how many of the graduates of the special industrial arts course are: (a) teaching industrial arts, (b) teaching industrial arts and academic subjects, (c) employed in industry; second, to review the progress made in one school through: (a) number of times they have changed positions, (b) additional professional training taken since graduation; third, to gather information relative to their reac-

tion to training received at Indiana State Teachers College and suggestions for improvement in the teacher training program in industrial arts; and fourth, to ascertain range of community activities in which graduates have engaged and the relationship of industrial arts preparation to such participation.

METHOD. The questionnaire method of collecting data was followed in the study. Two hundred fifty-four graduated from the special industrial arts course during the period 1925 to 1940. Addresses for thirteen of this group were not available. Two were deceased. Questionnaires were sent to the remaining 239. A total of 143 replies were returned.

FINDINGS. Forty-nine of the 136 who made usable replies had taught only industrial arts, and eleven had taught only one area of industrial arts. Eighty-seven of the 136 had taught academic subjects; thirty-eight had taught mathematics; twenty-seven had taught physical education; twenty-two had taught general science; sixteen had taught physics; and thirteen had taught history. Four of those returning the questionnaire had never taught, and five who had taught had given up teaching. Four of the latter had accepted a better paying position in industry and one had quit teaching because of political reasons.

Sixty-three of the teachers who returned questionnaires had never changed school corporations since they began teaching. Thirty-nine had changed positions once; eighteen had changed twice; twelve had changed three times; four had changed four times; three had changed five times; and one had changed six times.

Eighty-four per cent had had industrial experience and seventy per cent reported that their experience in industry *did* make them better teachers.

Sixty per cent had not found it necessary to do additional work in industrial arts. Thirty-one per cent had found it necessary to do additional work. The other nine per cent had taken more industrial arts work to

keep in touch with the trends in industrial arts.

On the basis of the opinions expressed by the graduates, it is recommended that: Industrial Arts 491: History and Theory of Industrial Education, be dropped from the special industrial arts curriculum; Electricity be made a required subject; Industrial Arts 111: Elementary Woodwork, be required only of students who have had no woodwork in high school; Industrial Arts 151: Beginning Foundry, and Industrial Arts 351: Advanced Foundry Practice, should be combined into one course; Industrial Arts 141: Beginning Forging, and Industrial Arts 341: Advanced Forging, should be combined into one course.

Further recommendations are: radio, metal spinning, consumer economics, art metal, arts and crafts, plumbing, and air conditioning should be offered in the Industrial Arts Department.

Education courses were generally criticized in that they were too theoretical and gave very little practical information that the teacher can use.

Opinions were about evenly divided on the question of the effect that teacher participation in community activities had on teaching. Being active in the affairs of a small community would be more valuable to the teacher than to take part in the community affairs of a large urban area.

HOLDEN, SISTER MARY AMATA. *The Relation Between the Intelligence of Pupils of Different Nationalities and the Accomplishment of These Same Individuals of Different Levels of Mental Ability.* 109 pp. (No. 490).

PROBLEM. The purpose of this study was to try to find out just what relation, if any, exists between intelligence and accomplishment of individuals of different levels of mental ability of 200 of each of these nationalities: Italian, Polish, German, Lithuanian, American (all of the aforesaid being true bloods), and mixed Americans.

METHOD. Seven schools were selected on a basis of nationalities. Of the four chosen in Chicago, two are private schools for girls, with an enrollment of three hundred seventy-five and 1,190, and graduating classes each year consist of about eighty and two hundred sixty. The former has chiefly Lithuanians, and the latter is representative of diverse nations. Of the other two schools, one is a private school for Polish boys, with an attendance of about two hundred fifty and a graduating class each year of approximately forty, while the other is a public school with an enrollment of about five thousand and a graduating class of approximately five hundred boys and girls, the majority being Italians and Jews. These four schools were visited by the writer and data for this thesis were obtained. The remaining three schools were contacted by means of questionnaires. One, a private school in Fort Wayne, Indiana, with an enrollment of 1,190 boys and girls and a graduating class of about two hundred thirty each year, has true blood Americans; another private school in Evansville, Indiana, with an attendance close to seven hundred boys and girls and a senior class of eighty boys and girls each year, has chiefly Germans. The data for the remainder of the Germans which were needed were obtained from the public high school in Jasper, Indiana.

FINDINGS. The group of mixed Americans outclassed the other five nationalities and showed their superiority in practically every phase of this study. Their chronological ages, at the time of their entrance into the freshman year, were from twelve and a half up to fifteen, while the Polish, the Americans, and the Italians entered up to the age of sixteen and a half years.

The mental ages of the mixed Americans at this time were from fourteen to twenty and a half years, while those of the Italians, the Lithuanians, and the Germans were from ten up to eighteen and nineteen years. All nationalities but the mixed A-

mericans had pupils in the lowest mental-age groups of ten, eleven, and twelve.

The median was lowest for the chronological ages of the mixed Americans and highest for their mental ages; while the Polish, the Germans, and the Americans had the highest chronological ages, sixteen and a half years; the Italians, the Lithuanians, and the Germans had the lowest mental ages.

The highest averages, ninety-five and ninety-six for the four years, were achieved by the mixed Americans, the Polish, and the Americans, with five, two, and one, while the lowest averages, sixty-eight to seventy-one were attained by the Lithuanians, the Italians, and the Americans with one each.

The mixed Americans had one with the highest intelligence, 147, while the Italians had three and the Lithuanians had one in the lowest group, sixty-five to sixty-nine.

The greatest number of A and B grades were achieved by the mixed Americans in the two upper quarters, with two and a half times that of any other nationality. They had only one failure, while the Polish had forty-eight, and the Italians, forty-four failures.

The mixed Americans head the list with seventy-three for highest averages and one hundred ten for highest intelligence. This group had no pupils in the class of low averages and low intelligence.

HIXON, MILDRED. *A Study of How Girls of the Seventh Grade of Sarah Scott Junior High School Manage Their Money.* 78 pp. (No. 491).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken with a four-fold purpose: first, to find the sources of income of seventh-grade girls and their management of their money; second, to discover whether the financial status of the family, the educational status of the parents, and amount of home economics training the mother had received had anything to do with the

manner in which the girls managed their money; third, to ascertain the reactions towards an allowance of those girls who had one and of those who had not; and fourth, to make comparisons between the 7B classes and the 7A classes on some of the above points.

METHOD. A questionnaire containing items concerning the money problems of the girl's family as well as those of the girl herself was given to one hundred girls in two 7B classes and three 7A classes in home economics in Sarah Scott Junior High School, Terre Haute, Indiana. The results of different combinations of various items were tabulated and analyzed.

FINDINGS. Fifty-four per cent of the girls receive allowances from their fathers; 6 per cent earn all the money they have for themselves; and 22 per cent ask for money as they want it.

The largest percentage of allowances comes from parents (1) who have regular work, (2) who have a high financial status, and (3) who have a college education.

More girls whose mothers had home economics in college receive allowances than those whose mothers had less economics training.

The allowance received by a majority of girls is fifty cents. Twenty-five cents is the most popular beginning allowance. The median allowance is sixty-five cents. Girls from families with a high financial status receive larger allowances than girls from families with less money.

Thirty-six per cent of the girls make a plan for spending their money, 22 per cent keep an account of their expenditures, 47 per cent plan for savings, and 16 per cent participate in family budgeting.

In comparison with other groups, daughters of parents with college education show a lower percentage in planning expenditures, a higher percentage in keeping account of their expenditures, a higher percentage in planning for saving, and no percentage in helping with family budgeting.

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In comparison with other groups, daughters of mothers who had home economics training show a lower percentage in planning expenditures, a higher percentage in keeping accounts of their expenditures, the same percentage in planning for savings, and a lower percentage in helping with the family budgeting.

More than half of the girls ask for extra money when their allowances are insufficient, and only 28 per cent are made to keep within their allowances.

Seventy-nine per cent of the parents regulate in some way the manner in which their daughters spend their money.

Eighty per cent of the girls who were not receiving allowances would like to have them. About 75 per cent of the girls are satisfied with the size of their allowances.

Eighty per cent of the girls receiving allowances believe their spending habits had been improved because of the fact that they had allowances.

More 7A girls keep within their allowances than do the 7B girls. The 7A class has only 5 per cent more girls receiving allowances than the 7B class.

RECORDS, MARY AMOUR. *A Study of the Girl Reserve Movement in the Senior High Schools of Terre Haute and a Comparison of Scholastic and Leadership Attainments of Members and Non-Members from 1937-1942*. 86 pp. (No. 492).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken: (1) To determine to what extent the Girl Reserve clubs of Terre Haute meet the objectives of Girl Reserve. (2) To discover the strong traits and the shortcomings of the Terre Haute Girl Reserve clubs. (3) To learn whether or not leadership in school activities is an outcome of Girl Reserve membership. (4) To discover whether or not former members of Girl Reserve rate higher scholastically in college than girls who had not been members while in high school.

METHOD. First, Girl Reserve literature was studied so that objectives of

the organization could be stated. Then data for this study were collected from three sources. Questionnaires were given to Girl Reserve members in May, 1942. Six hundred and sixteen were returned and the results tabulated. Girl Reserve membership and total girl enrollment of each Terre Haute high school for 1937-1942 were obtained from the Girl Reserve advisors and the high-school principals. Seventy-six girls who had been members of the National Honor Society in high school attended Indiana State Teachers College. Their scholarship indexes at the end of the freshman year were taken from the files of the college.

FINDINGS. Analysis of the questionnaire data revealed that the Girl Reserve objectives are met by the Terre Haute clubs to a varying degree. Members feel that the club programs help them in their daily living, satisfy their urge for activity, and provide means for self-improvement. Hence the club program seems to succeed in driving toward the Girl Reserve goal—the development of the whole girl.

Leading the list of the strong characteristics, as given by the members, were the following: members feel that they have received help in meeting people and making friends, that they have been brought to appreciate their parents, that they have become willing to work for world peace, and that they have been brought to realize the importance of God in their lives.

The girls felt that the clubs failed to give them sufficient chances to work out their own ideas and to provide opportunities for greater participation for all members. Attempts should be made to overcome these shortcomings in future Girl Reserve programs.

One hundred eighty-nine girls or 70.5 per cent of the 268 girls selected to National Honor Society during 1937-1942 were Girl Reserves. Since only 54.6 per cent of all high-school girls are Girl Reserves, the club seems to help the members in leadership development and scholastic attainments in high school.

However, girls who had not been

members of Girl Reserve in high school had higher scholarship indexes after three terms in Indiana State Teachers College than did former Girl Reserves. The median for the former group of twenty girls was 75 and the average was 72.9. Fifty-six of the seventy-six girls who attended college were Girl Reserves in high-school. The average of their scholarship indexes was 68.9 and the median was between 69.5 and 70.2.

STAHL, EDGAR E. *A Manual for Student Teachers of Comprehensive General Shops*. 84 pp. (No. 493).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken with the thought of consciously directing attention of students and student teachers in the industrial arts field to certain specific factors which are pertinent to the teaching of this so-called special subject. The trend in recent years has been to organize the industrial arts offerings under a plan known rather generally as a comprehensive general shop. This study was an attempt to deal with the problems connected with some of the areas of study commonly found in this type of industrial arts shop.

METHOD. Much of the information used in the study was gathered from the finest available textbooks that deal with the teaching problems of industrial arts. Many outstanding current magazine articles made their contribution to this manual. Personal discussions with outstanding educators in the field of industrial arts were especially fruitful in preparing this study.

FINDINGS. Certain objectives of the student teaching in this field are those relating to any of the other teaching fields. A thorough analysis of the teacher of industrial arts was attempted. Success is determined in large measure by the physical and mental health of the student teacher. A workable philosophy of living is an essential. Adequate scholastic preparation is a matter of vital importance. Of equal importance are individual characteristics which we may call personality. Often, with excellent

physical ability, the faculty of getting along with people is a determining factor in success. These factors were indicated and some suggestions made for their attainment.

A discussion of each of several of the more important subject areas was given. For each of these areas a very definite attempt was made to give the student teacher some accurate information regarding the offering, its requirements, possibilities, etc.

Well-laid plans of instruction, teaching aids, and devices are of the utmost importance, and the administrative phases of the problem must not be minimized. Realizing the importance of these phases of the problem, many very definite suggestions were given covering the findings of this study.

Several suggestions dealing with the best ways to provide silent instructional material were offered. Probably no one best method has yet been found. A combination of operation, information, and assignment sheets is probably best to date.

Attention was also directed toward the problem of evaluation of pupil effort. Caution as to the use of standardized tests and suggestions for their use as well as exclusion of dependence upon subjective phases of grading were indicated.

A brief discussion of such problems as safety, guidance, conferences, and observation was given. These considerations are of the utmost importance to the student teacher.

A forward look was made to serve as a guide for the teacher who is entering this great field. Many new trends were noted in the study, and implications were drawn for the teacher of the comprehensive general shop.

RUKE, JUNIOR MAX. *A Bacteriological Analysis of the Milk Supply of Terre Haute, Indiana*. 39 pp. (No. 494).

PROBLEM. The purpose of this survey was to determine the quality so far as sanitation is concerned of the milk supply of Terre Haute, Indiana.

It is the hope of the writer that this survey will give some authentic information concerning the conditions of the milk consumed in the city of Terre Haute, and that it may contribute toward the improvement of that product for consumption.

METHOD. The techniques employed were in accordance with those outlined by leading bacteriologists of the day. These techniques were concerned with the following: calculating the approximate number of bacteria present, and determining by gas formation in phenol-red lactose and brilliant-green bile fermentation tubes the presence of bacteria due to fecal contamination. If gas was secured, confirmatory tests were employed to verify the results. Three samples were analyzed from some dairies, and as high as thirteen samples were analyzed from others. Individual results of the samples were averaged for a more representative bacterial count for each dairy. These averages were catalogued in tables.

FINDINGS. There is no Grade A milk distributed in Terre Haute. There are only two dairies whose milk qualifies as Grade B milk. The remaining dairies are below the Grade C qualifications. Many of the supposedly pasteurized samples were far below the standard of bacterial content that was set for raw milk.

A large number of the samples analyzed showed the presence of gas producing bacteria as an indication of *E. coli* and fecal contamination.

A marked difference was noted in the samples collected during the summer months and during the winter months. As would be expected, the samples analyzed during the summer months contained a higher bacterial plate count than those analyzed during the winter months. This was true, because during the winter months the temperature was lower and served to retard the growth and multiplication of the bacteria present.

CAMMACK, KIRK V. *Mine Gases and Ventilation*. 193 pp. (No. 495).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken with a two-fold purpose: first,

to determine what scientific knowledge was needed to successfully act as a foreman in Indiana mines; second, to assemble, classify, apply, and present this information in a text that could be used in evening schools for miners.

METHOD. Questionnaires were distributed to men currently employed in Indiana mines. Two hundred five questionnaires were returned by miners and sixty-three by mine foremen. Selection of the topics to be presented in the text was made from the compiled returns of these questionnaires and a series of lessons prepared emphasizing these topics as lesson objectives. In preparing these lessons, a practical application of scientific principles was made in methods of preventing mine explosions and ventilating mines.

FINDINGS. From the questionnaires, fifty-six topics were determined in the fields of chemistry, mathematics, and physics of which the present-day miner or foreman would need an exact knowledge.

A study of all available writings on these subjects revealed that there was no text or reference book by any author that presented the desired information in such a concise manner as to be serviceable as a text for use in class instruction.

In assembling the data used, it was necessary to study the works of twenty-eight different authorities contained in thirty-two different scientific reference books. This data was then arranged and presented in simple, understandable English that gave a practical application of scientific phenomena to the problem studied.

ROBBINS, CLARENCE E. *The Influence of Industrial Arts Training on the Subsequent Occupations of the Graduates of Central High School, Fort Wayne, Indiana, for the Period, 1952-1940*. 146 pp. (No. 496).

PROBLEM. It was the purpose of this study: (1) to find out what kinds of jobs our industrial arts graduates go into, (2) to see what ways, if any, industrial arts has contributed toward

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securing and holding these jobs, (5) to find out what phase of industrial arts these graduates consider most important, and (4) to learn what opinions were held and what important changes were suggested by these graduates.

METHOD. The personal interview method was followed in this study. A detailed form questionnaire was used to keep the interviews more uniform and to facilitate tabulation of results. A total of 200 graduates of the Central High School, Fort Wayne, Indiana, were interviewed.

FINDINGS. The types of jobs filled were quite varied and the number entering any one field was very small. Drafting and assembly work were the most frequent.

Mechanical drawing and machine shop were the areas making the most important contributions to the subsequent occupations. Electricity and machine drafting followed next in order.

Industrial arts contributions to the occupations were reported in varying degrees as follows: good work habits were considered an aid by 71.5 per cent of the men, manipulative skill by 64 per cent, care of tools by 56 per cent, safety factors by 54 per cent, and technical information by 54 per cent.

A mean percentage of 57.0 were making practical use of their industrial arts training.

Of those taking the industrial arts course, 64.5 per cent were actually preparing for a vocation. Only 20.1 per cent succeeded in getting into their chosen fields. However, 58.5 per cent did go into some kind of industrial work. Of these, 37.7 per cent could be classed as skilled workers, 56.8 per cent as semi-skilled, and only 5.5 as unskilled.

Machine shop was the most popular field for vocation selected, having been chosen by 33.1 per cent of the men. Electricity, drafting, and tool-making followed in the order named.

Of those who had not previously decided on a vocation, 58 per cent were influenced in their selection after taking some industrial arts work.

Two hundred and ten suggestions for improvement of the courses were made. Required mathematics, more blueprint reading, stress on industrial practices and methods, more specialization, and more vocational guidance were the most common suggestions. A total of 46 per cent expressed satisfaction with their high school program.

When questioned as to the advisability of requiring some industrial arts of all boys before they graduate, 76.5 per cent felt this plan should be followed. They felt that 12.2 semester hours would be of benefit to all.

Industrial arts influenced 20.6 per cent of these graduates in their hobby activities. Woodwork, model building, and radio work were the hobbies most frequently indicated.

Technical information was ranked as the most important value of industrial arts training. Other values in their order of rank were skills learned, appreciation of craftsmanship and quality, wholesome attitude toward all socially useful work, understanding of industrial standards, consumer knowledge, and the projects made.

DODDS, AGNES CLAUDINE. *A Study of the Intelligence and Scholarship Scores of Graduates of Teaching Curriculums in the Major Departments at Indiana State Teachers College.* 18 pp. (No. 497).

PROBLEM. The problem was to determine the quality of the intellectual abilities of the students in each of the various major departments at Indiana State Teachers College and to determine the extent to which the students earn scholarship indexes which correspond to their percentile ranks in intelligence.

METHOD. The procedure was to determine the significance of the differences between each group and the entire group in percentile rank in intelligence and in scholarship index, and to determine the coefficient of correlation of intelligence to scholarship within each of the groups.

FINDINGS. The results of the study showed that groups who majored in

French, Latin, and English were mentally superior to the entire group of students, and that those majoring in home economics, industrial arts, and physical education for men were mentally inferior to the entire group of students. The students who majored in French, Latin, speech, mathematics, music, and English earned high scholarship indexes, and those who majored in physical education for men, physical education for women, home economics, and science earned low scholarship indexes. The elementary education students had a high coefficient of correlation of intelligence to scholarship, although those of the groups who majored in industrial arts, physical education for men, and science were low. The coefficients of correlation for these two factors were more normal in the other groups.

JONES, R. PAUL. *A Study of the Unit Plan of Teaching Chemistry.* 169 pp. (No. 498).

PROBLEM. The purpose of this study was (1) to propose the Unit Plan in teaching as a practical solution to the problem of adapting progressive practices to the traditional high-school course in chemistry; and (2) to prepare two comprehensive units in chemistry which illustrate in a concrete manner, the organization and administration of the Unit Plan in the school's instructional program.

This problem has presented itself because of the fact that with the gradual passing of the formal recitation, high-school chemistry instructors have been confronted with the problem of organizing material to guide their students through valuable learning situations and experiences in chemistry. The task often is difficult because at present the majority of chemistry textbooks are written for the traditional methods of presenting the subject, and the use of workbooks has invited much criticism on the basis that they arouse very little thought on the part of pupils. In view of this, the writer has proposed the Unit Plan as one vital approach in adapting progressive

practices in our educational scheme.

METHOD. Literature dealing specifically with the Unit Plan of teaching and the teaching of science in general was reviewed and carefully analyzed for the purpose of securing information.

Following a critical study of the Unit Plan of teaching, many high-school chemistry textbooks and science periodicals were examined and used as source material for organizing and developing two typical instructional units in chemistry. These may be utilized by progressive and energetic science instructors as a specific guide in developing further units for class instruction. Special attention was given to the organization and administration of these units in actual practice rather than in theory.

RESULTS. A study of this type revealed that any plan of instruction which is to continue to have a place in the school life must justify itself by making definite contributions to the aims and objectives which are in line with the purposes of education.

It was found that the Unit Plan of instruction does justify its existence as a progressive practice in the school program by virtue of the many known values derived from its use. Also it makes a fairly good approach in helping the school illustrate the democratic way of life by using the classroom more as a conference room or laboratory where pupils come together willingly to discuss problems and to do research on interesting problems.

In the final analysis of this study, the writer wishes to state that if a chemistry instructor anticipates even a fair measure of success in the use of this plan, he must possess not only a wealth of subject matter in his own and related fields of knowledge, but at the same time he must have a comprehensive, clear, and pragmatic philosophy of education and life.

CLARK, ROBERT E. *A Personality Study of Athletes and Non-Athletes Enrolled in the Public Schools of Daviess County, Indiana, for the School Year, 1941-1942*, 33 pp. (No. 499).

PROBLEM. The purpose of this study was to make a comparison of certain personality traits possessed by the athletes and non-athletes enrolled in the public high schools of Daviess County, Indiana, and to find if any significant difference existed between the two groups.

METHOD. The Washburne Social-Adjustment Inventory Test (Thaspic edition) was given to each boy enrolled in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years of each of the above high schools. Data were taken for 426 individuals—141 athletes and 285 non-athletes. The scores were tabulated and arranged into two groups. Tables were constructed showing the distribution of the scores on each of the seven personality traits as measured by the test and the total of accumulative scores.

FINDINGS.

1. Neither group established definite proof of superiority in any of the various personality traits tested.

2. The most significant difference between the two groups was manifested in the sense of purpose. Here the athletes very nearly established a definite superiority.

3. Breaking the inventory down into its eight parts, five means were found favoring the athletes, one favoring the non-athletes, and in the other two, while the mean was slightly in favor of the non-athletes, the differences were so slight as to be insignificant. Although this would lead to the conclusion that the athletic group did enjoy an advantage, this difference might not be due to participation in athletics.

4. A comparison of the scores of both groups with the standardized norms showed that both groups were more poorly adjusted than normal high-school groups should be.

TAYLOR, MARGUERITE EVELYN. *A Survey of the Branches of Science Pursued by Teachers in Indiana Who Have Been Licensed to Teach General Science*. 211 pp. (No. 500).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken with a four-fold purpose: first,

to find out what branches of science the teachers of Indiana who have been licensed to teach general science have pursued; second, to find out how adequate their training is; third, to discover the points of greatest weakness; and fourth, to compare the preparation of the teachers and the scope of science branches expected to be covered as indicated by textbooks in general science.

METHOD. A sampling from each of the ninety-two counties in Indiana of science teachers listed in the *Indiana School Directory, 1941-1942*, yielded 244 cases for this study. Data were obtained from the records upon which the teachers' licenses were issued from the files in the Division of Teacher Training and Licensing of the Department of Education in the Statehouse at Indianapolis, Indiana.

FINDINGS. More than half of the teachers had pursued four or more branches of science.

More teachers prepared in four branches of science than in any other number of sciences.

An analysis of three science areas (biological sciences, physical sciences, and earth and sky sciences) showed that slightly more than half of the teachers were prepared in two science areas, more than one-fourth were prepared in three areas, and approximately one-eighth pursued sciences in one area.

Nearly half of the teachers had no training in the earth and sky sciences.

Authors of textbooks in general science which were used widely in Indiana do not agree upon the sciences that should receive the greatest emphasis.

The textbooks examined showed much integration of the branches of science within each chapter and from chapter to chapter, while the records of only one-eighth of the teachers showed an integrated training through each of the three areas of science.

CROOKE, H. MILTON. *An Investigation of the Use of Photography in the Public High Schools of Three Hundred Enrollment or Larger in the Midwest*. 58 pp. (No. 501).

Indiana State Teachers College

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken to determine (1) how many high schools in the Midwest with an enrollment of three hundred or larger already use some form of photography in the study of art, (2) how many schools of that size use the processes of photography in the study of art, (3) how many high schools of that size already have photography or camera clubs in their extra-curricular programs, (4) how many high schools of that size *would* use the processes of photography in the study of art, (5) what photography can do to aid in the study of art, (6) teacher attitudes with regard to photography as an art and as a part of art courses in the high schools, and (7) cost and availability of visual education aids and photographic supplies.

METHOD. The questionnaire and inquiry methods were used in this study. Double post-card questionnaires were sent to art teachers in 580 high schools of the designated size in the states of Indiana, Wisconsin, Ohio, Iowa, Kentucky, Illinois, and Michigan. Letters of inquiry were sent to eight teachers of photography in the Chicago evening schools. Inquiries were sent, also, to various concerns selling visual education aids and photographic supplies. The answers received from the questionnaires and letters were analyzed for information which lead to the conclusions drawn and the recommendations made.

FINDINGS. Of the 580 questionnaires sent, 227, or 39 per cent, were returned. One answer was received from the teachers of photography in the Chicago evening schools, three answers were received from the concerns selling visual education aids, and two were received from the concerns selling photographic supplies. Eighty-one of the teachers already use some form of photography in their art classes.

Twenty-one of the art teachers were, at that time, using the processes of photography in their art courses.

One hundred ten of the schools in which the teachers were employed had camera or photography clubs in

their extra-curricular programs.

One hundred sixty-two of the art teachers would use photography, meaning processes of photography, in their courses. The same number gave recommendations for the use of photography in the art courses, the most important use being as an aid to the study of composition. Definite and practical plans for the incorporation of photography in the art courses were given by only eight of the teachers and the one teacher in the Chicago evening schools.

About one hundred seventy of the teachers returned favorable comments as to the part photography could play in the study of art.

It was found that art teachers or students could buy slide projectors for as little as fifteen dollars and slides for as little as fifty cents apiece and sufficient photographic supplies for the taking, developing, and printing of pictures for as little as six or seven dollars.

BIDDLE, MARGARET E. *A Study of Juvenile Delinquency in Vigo County, Indiana, and a Survey of the Agencies Concerned.* 98 pp. (No. 502).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken in order to discover whether or not the rate of delinquency was increasing or decreasing in Vigo County, what agencies were active in the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency cases, and to determine the efficacy of treatment.

METHOD. Representatives of all agencies for treatment and prevention were interviewed. Studies were made of such statistics as had been filed by these agencies, and a questionnaire was given to 393 students from three Terre Haute schools to determine their recreational habits as well as their wishes in regard to a recreational program.

FINDINGS. An overlapping in the services of the agencies studied seems to interfere with smooth functioning. There does not seem to be a sufficient number of trained workers employed by several of the agencies, and there

is some discrepancy in the statistics kept, which makes it impossible at present to determine whether there is an increase or decrease of delinquency in Terre Haute.

It was also found that within the past three months an attempt has been made to improve the keeping of records as well as to analyze the situation in Terre Haute. Some agencies have begun constructive treatment for delinquency prevention, but it was found that many improvements could be made in the county's handling of delinquency cases.

MORAN, MARK R. *The Educational Program of the Federal Prison Service.* 75 pp. (No. 503).

PROBLEM. This study was made in order to give: (1) an over-all view of the educational program in the United States prison service; (2) recognition to the advanced educational methods here employed in the field of prison education; (3) an evaluation of the program since its inception in 1930; and (4) information about something the layman can well afford to be cognizant of.

METHOD. The Bureau of Prisons was kind enough to provide the annual reports of the various institutions in the Bureau since its beginning in 1930. These are combined yearly under the title, "Federal Offenders." Through an intensive examination of these reports, a study was made of the educational philosophy of the educational service, this philosophy's translation into methods, and the results obtained. From time to time, during the study, Dr. Benjamin Frank, Supervisor of Education, United States Bureau of Prisons, supplied additional information. Mr. Bert Lindsey, Supervisor of Education, United States Penitentiary, Terre Haute, Indiana, also was of much assistance. This work had the approval of Warden E. B. Swope, United States Penitentiary, Terre Haute, Indiana. Observation was made of the various educational features at the Terre Haute Penitentiary.

FINDINGS. The education depart-

ment of the Bureau of Prisons is a vital force in the rehabilitative work of this bureau. To be sure it is but one part of a large organization whose various parts must function without undue emphasis on any one part in order to realize a well-rounded program.

It is admitted that this study has not begun to scratch the surface of the many problems facing prison education. However, the purpose of this thesis was to give an over-all view which is necessary as a starting point for any examination of a more specific problem. Along this line there are several points that were called to mind for future examination and research. Untold value could be gained from a study of the matter of recidivism and the influence of education, if any, on the repeater. There is social value to be gleaned from a study of the influence of education on prison personnel when they learn of the Prison Bureau's philosophy of the treatment of the inmate. It is possible that the general public could be educated to the point where it would not cast, unjustly, so much stigma on the ex-convict.

This paper points out that there still are a great deal of men without even the rudiments of an education. The reformatory at Petersburg, West Virginia, might prove to be a fertile field in which to examine the incidence of illiteracy in regards to crime.

It is felt that less up-to-date public welfare representatives can do well to learn from this thesis and other sources, the excellent ways of dealing with those who are incarcerated. These methods have ever at their end the re-establishment, on a sounder footing, of the convicted person in the society to which he will be returned.

CHURCHILL, COLERIDGE. *The Achievements of the Negro in the Present Era*. July, 1945. 60 pp. (No. 504).

PROBLEM. This study was undertaken for four reasons: (1) there is a need for a compilation of the material describing the achievements of the Negro; (2) such a compilation can

be used to encourage Negro boys and girls to attempt to do something worthwhile; (3) the phases of American life in which the Negro has excelled can be shown definitely; and (4) the findings as revealed through a study of outstanding accomplishments of the Negro are worthy of presentation.

METHOD. References to the works of outstanding Negroes were taken from the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* for the years, 1930-1941, *Current Biography*, and *Who's Who in Colored America*. These biographies and references were then carefully read and analyzed.

FINDINGS. No racial group in the United States offers so many problems of economic and social adjustment as the Negro. In the fifty years since freedom was decreed, Negro illiteracy has decreased from over ninety per cent to thirty per cent.

The Negro has quickened his pace since 1932, urged on first by the pinch of depression and then by the push of government aid and social experiment; here, by racial and national aggression and there, by economic competition and class struggle. He, with the double assertiveness of youth and race revolt, has been searching out a way, repudiating old leadership, accepting new ideas, and striking out experimentally in new directions.

The pendulum swing of Negro effort has been between the advocacy of equal rights tradition and the economic approach of Booker T. Washington. Dr. W. E. Dubois fought for full social and political equality for the Negro. Negro leadership has become increasingly conscious. A further important stream of thought has been concerned with Negro contributions to American culture as Negroes and Americans. This approach has gained recognition for the Negro in many fields of endeavor.

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